COMPASS

JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS



RESEARCH

in

DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROFESSIONS

AGENCY ADMINISTRATION

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

THE COMPASS

VOL. XXVII

SEPTEMBER, 1946

NO. 6

JOURNAL OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS

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THE COMPASS is published six times a year in November, January, March, April, June and September. Publication office, 374 Broadway, Albany 7, N. Y. Editorial and General office, 130 East 22nd Street, New York 10, N. Y. Edited by the staff. Entry as second-class matter at the post office at Albany, N. Y. Acceptance for mailing at the special rate of postage provided for in Section 1103, Act of October 3, 1917, authorized June 28, 1924.

Subscription: Non-members \$1.00 per annum. Special student rate \$.50 per annum.

Subscription of members of the Association included in annual dues.

The Value of Research by Professional Associations in Formulating and Administering Program and Policy*

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The term professional association, as used in this article, applies to nationwide organizations whose membership is composed of individual persons, and also to associations of schools that offer professional training. Such associations in social work include the AASW, AAMSW, AAPSW, AASSW, and some others. The term does not refer to national associations—like the American Association for Adult Education, American Hospital Association, Family Service Association of America, or National Association of Legal-Aid Organizations—which are concerned with improving the quality of the service rendered by their member agencies and with enlarging the scope of work in their specialized areas.

Because of limitations in space, research conducted by the professional associations in social work has not been described. It is assumed that readers of The Compass have sufficient acquaintance with what has been done in this field by their own bodies to prefer that attention be centered upon trends in other fields in order that they may better evaluate the progress in research made by social work associations.

The Development of Professional Associations

THEN the American Library Association celebrated its fiftieth anniversary in 1926, one of its former presidents briefly recalled the early struggles of that Association. During the first thirty years the ALA had conducted its work, aside from publication, without an office and largely without the assistance of so much as a stenographer. "Where the annually elected secretary hung his hat was headquarters and his compensation was a good conscience for having served well a worthy cause." The first thirty years, however, were the hardest. Thereafter increased membership brought larger revenue with which both offices and salaried personnel could be obtained. By its fiftieth birthday the Association had permanent headquarters in Chicago, a staff of over 50 clerical and professional persons, and a generous subsidy from the Carnegie Corporation of New York to bridge the critical period until an adequate endowment could be acquired. Today the professional staff alone numbers more than 30, the annual budget is approximately one million dollars, and the endowment fund has passed the two million dollar mark.

Everyone who has been associated with the birth and early development of a typical professional association will quickly recognize the universality of the experience of the ALA. Perhaps the period of youthful hardship, particularly among associations founded after the beginning of the twentieth century, has not been so prolonged. Perhaps the period of maturity has brought less material prosperity and leadership

than have come to the ALA. But the differences are those of degree rather than kind.

Like the ALA, the average association has begun its existence by almost complete dependence upon a president or secretary. With such guidance as he could obtain through correspondence and through discussions at annual meetings, he has shouldered responsibility both for the formulation of policy and program and for their administration. The association has presently come to realize, however, that any considerable organizational growth or sound democratic development necessitates more persons being brought actively into the planning process.

Thus the conference table technique has evolved. It has been and still continues to be the principal method utilized by professional associations for the formulation of policy and program. All persons who have held membership on the governing boards or on policy-making committees of such associations are well acquainted with what takes place at the conference table. Each member is expected to make any pertinent contribution to group thinking that he can draw from his professional practice and education or his life experience. A policy decision is generally reached either unanimously or by the majority vote of the group. The value of that decision depends upon the competence of the particular persons to deal with the particular problem at hand.

In general the conference method is unexcelled for the making of decisions that are based upon relatively simple or well-established facts and procedures with which the members are acquainted, or where mere determination of the opinion of the group is the objective sought. In an era, however, when complicated interrelationships have very largely replaced simple situations, when

SEPTEMBER, 1946

^{*} Article made available from forthcoming publication under the same title by the Russell Sage Foundation.

policy-making must be an almost uninterrupted process if any sizable program is to be undertaken, and when most board and committee members have little time to give to continuing study or even to constructive thought about program except when seated at the long table—in such an era the conference method is subject to severe limitations.

If the voluntary services of association members are far from satisfactory as an exclusive or even principal means for determination of policy, they are even more unsatisfactory as a means of administering the plans agreed upon. Few persons can provide, in addition to the practice of their profession, either the requisite hours or the con-centrated attention that the "running" of an active association requires. Hence qualified members of the profession, or other persons whose training and specialized experience are deemed useful, have come to be employed on a full-time salary basis in order to strengthen the work of boards and committees. The number of such persons among existing professional associations ranges from only one with two or three clerical assistants in several associations, to no fewer than 40 with nearly 300 office assistants in the American Medical Association.

Functions of the Salaried Staff

Regardless of the number, the primary task of the salaried staff is the administration of the program defined by the board or committee. In the process of administration, however, policy is continuously—although often inconspicuously—made and program is more sharply defined or even redefined. So inseparable are administration and policy formulation that scarcely an important letter can be written, a rule set down, or an interpretation made of the board's decision without further crystallizing the pattern of organizational thought and structure.

Of scarcely less importance than the evolution of policy which inevitably accompanies the administrative process is the degree to which the salaried staff formulates prospective policy for the board Often the staff does so at the express request of the board which asks that plans for procedure be presented. Sometimes the staff formuates policy without being aware of the fact; sometimes it both consciously and frankly attempts to influence the opinion of the board. In the mere preparation of agenda for meetings, in the selection of what matters shall be brought before the board, in the staff presentation of these matters, the professional personnel may exert vast control over those who are charged with responsibility for policy determination on the highest level. So great is this potential control that the boards of many professional associations have done little more, at some periods in their history, than approve the plans and action of the administrative staff.

But the salaried staff members of an association shortly find themselves faced with the same fundamental difficulty as does the board or committee. What are they to do when confronted with new problems, on which administrative action must be taken but where the relevant facts are not known, no procedures have been established, and little literature dealing either with the substantive or procedural aspects of the problem has been published? Are they to act at once on the basis of the best "guess" possible; are they to interview, write, or telephone hurriedly to colleagues who might be expected to, but generally do not, know the answer; are they to throw the responsibility back on the board that does not know either; are they to sit down at a conference table of their own and conscientiously pool such ideas as they can and then act, hoping the result will not be disastrous?

At this point the staff of a professional association is in a situation comparable to that of the legal profession, as described to the author by one of the most intellectually penetrating but cynical "The function of the law school teachers of law. is often defined as that of teaching prospective lawyers to be hard headed. Well, the schools have We think hard, but we don't know succeeded. what we are thinking about." Staffs, as well as boards and committees, of many professional associations have been—and still are—in the position of thinking and working "hard" to plan and administer programs without adequate knowledge of the validity of the plan or the soundness of the administration, and with even less knowledge of what has been accomplished.

Need for a Qualified Research Staff

The patent shortcoming of such "hard" but unscientific thinking and working has slowly and belatedly forced professional associations to some realization that salaried and voluntary efforts in planning and administration must be supplemented by competent research, if these organizations are to have even a moderately strong structural base on which to build or if their evaluation of achievement is to be more than conjecture. However, for a variety of reasons the actual research undertaken by most associations is still relatively small and restricted to a few areas of cultivation. The method of the conference table has become so firmly established that organizations are somewhat reluctant to relinguish their habit of full reliance upon it. Programs, furthermore have expanded faster than has realization of the profound implications and complexities of those programs. The boards and staffs of some professional associations are composed so exclusively of practitioners who have had no training or experience in research that they are not fully aware of the degree of its utility. Research itself still fails to produce many of the techniques needed, while

trained research personnel is sometimes difficult to find. The financial resources of almost all associations, moreover, are sharply limited.

For such reasons professional associations have lagged in using research largely. During recent years, however, they have had the example of several outstanding studies, made at the request of the President of the United States or the Congress expressly as a basis for determining government policy, by such federal agencies as the Social Security Board, the National Resources Planning Board, the Attorney General's Committee on Administrative Procedure, or the President's Committee on Civil Service Improvement. They have seen the Congress of Industrial Organizations develop a research program as an essential instrumentality in its attempt to raise standards of living. Now they note that the new Committee for Economic Development announces immediate organization of industrial, business, and educational leaders in a research council whose function is to anticipate future economic trends and point out satisfactory solutions. Their imagination has been caught by the phrase, "No action without research, no research without action," which is a basic plank in the platform of the Commission on Community Interrelations, a private agency working for the elimination of racial, ethnic, and religious frictions. Such developments can scarcely fail to reinforce the growing judgment of professional associations that research can be made an indispensable tool for the formulation of policy and the administration of program, and that the techniques of research are continuously being enlarged and improved. The future, therefore, promises considerable expansion of the use of research by professional associations.

Research Relating to Professional Education

The area in which research has been cultivated longest and to the largest degree is that of professional education. In the first quarter of this century the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching lent much impetus to the movement through its distinguished studies of education for the practice of medicine, law, dentistry, and engineering. Many other organizations both private and public have made examinations of some aspect, at least, of professional education. The great burden, however, of surveying institutions for professional training as a basis for determination of policy about the improvement of that training has been borne largely by professional associations.

The American Library Association

The work of the American Library Association in attempting to raise standards of library science illustrates well the typical procedure that was formerly and still is employed by most professional associations. More detailed and refined techniques have since come to be used by some groups, especially those representing nursing, medicine, and dentistry. Like other similar organizations, the initial attempts of the ALA grew out of the realization that training facilities were too few or too weak to meet the current demand for professional service. In 1924, consequently, it created the Board of Education for Librarianship, which it charged with responsibility for improving library education. Obviously this could not be done without extensive study. The Board's first task was to examine all printed information relating to 18 library schools. Two months were then devoted to visits to these schools primarily for the purpose of acquiring necessary data, but also for advising faculties and officials of the parent institutions about general inadequacies and the desirable future development of the school. Subsequently a confidential detailed statement embodying the consensus of the Board about the school was sent to each director and the appropriate institutional official.

When the Board made these first visits preparatory to initiating a plan of accreditation for schools of library science, training was being offered by public libraries, non-degree-conferring educational institutions, colleges, and universities. For some of the training, particularly that offered by public libraries, only high-school graduation was required; on the other hand, several library schools required or were about to require the baccalaureate for admission. Thus the Board was faced with widely different levels of preparation for librarians—levels which resulted in part from the variations in requirements for librarianship and in the salaries paid in different sections of the United States or in communities of different sizes. It made the realistic decision that its task was not to draw up a set of ideal standards but to formulate standards that were a little in advance of, but generally applicable under, existing conditions both in the schools and in library Hence it prepared minimum requirements for schools on four levels. These requirements could be gradually raised, it believed, until institutions on the lowest level were eliminated. In the meantime encouragement would also be given to the establishment of more adequate provision on the highest level for the preparation of administrative and specialized personnel.

The Board recognized two types of undergraduate library schools. The Junior Undergraduate Library School was to be connected with an approved library, college, or university. It was to require one year of college work for admission, offer a one-year curriculum, and grant a certificate. The Senior Undergraduate Library School was to be connected with an approved degree-conferring institution, require three years of col-

lege for admission, and grant a bachelor's degree after a one-year course. On the graduate level the Board insisted that the Graduate Library School be connected with an approved degree-conferring institution, require a baccalaureate for admission, and grant a certificate as recognition of completion of the curriculum of one year. The Board also defined standards for an Advanced Graduate Library School which should be an integral part of a university that met the standards for graduate study laid down by the Association of American Universities. For admission not only the college degree but successful completion of an approved one-year professional curriculum would Such a school would award the be required. master's degree for an additional year of study, and the doctorate in conformity with university regulations governing the granting of that degree. Besides these standards were definitions of minima for administrative and instructional personnel, financial resources, facilities and equipment, and

These decisions were the outgrowth of knowledge gained through a carefully planned course of research which involved visits to the schools, conferences with library and educational experts, discussions at association meetings of librarians, and requests for recommendations by the Association of American Universities of appropriate degrees to be awarded upon completion of library The requirements were approved in 1925 by the Council of the ALA, which then authorized the Board to prepare and keep current a list of schools that had received accreditation through ability to meet these or other subsequent official requirements. Armed with the minimum standards, representatives of the Board again visited the schools for the purpose of deciding what ones warranted accreditation. When their first list of approved institutions was published in 1926, eight schools were included under Junior Undergraduate, two under Senior Undergraduate, and five under Graduate. No school had progressed far enough to be classified as Advanced Graduate.

The next few years witnessed much change in library education. Some schools closed or became affiliated with universities, considerable improvement was made by others, several excellent schools were established. In 1933, therefore, the Board concluded that it should revise its requirements in conformity with changed conditions. cided to recognize three types of schools: the first two were to be schools on a strictly graduate level; the third, schools on an undergraduate A Type I school was to give advanced professional training beyond the first graduate Type II schools were those which gave only the first graduate year of library science. Type III schools would require "less than four years of college work for admission" and would give only the first full academic year of library science. These new standards were approved by the Council and have remained in force since 1933 under the name, Minimum Requirements for Library Schools. The latest publication of accredited institutions show five schools included under Type I, seventeen under Type II, and twelve under Type III.

Because of its representative character, the ex-

perience of the Board of Education for Librarianship has been described in as much detail as space admits. The research method consisted of examination of literature, visits to schools, correlation of knowledge gained through conferences with experts, and at a later period use of questionnaires. The research function and the counseling function were reposed in the same persons and were carried on simultaneously during the visits to schools. These persons "reported back" to the membership of the ALA on their formulation of tentative standards and asked for suggestions, thus employing a technique of great value for promotional purposes but generally of limited value for research. They presented their findings and recommendations for approval to the ALA council, the top policy-making body, and received a mandate to engage in administrative action. Neither then nor subsequently did they attempt to "grade" [rank comparatively] schools of library science. Grading is a difficult task that requires elaborate and expensive techniques of measurement, but its effectiveness in raising standards rapidly has been demonstrated by achieved in nursing, medical, and dental schools. The exclusively research function of the Board was and has remained a relatively small but important and integral part of, and an instrumentality for, making and administering policy concerning schools of library science.

Medical Education

In almost every profession that has emerged beyond the stage of swaddling clothes, one or more substantial surveys of professional education has been conducted, or at least sponsored, by the appropriate membership association, by the association of schools of the particular profession, or jointly by more than one interested association. For example, the published survey, Medical Education in the United States, 1934–1939, was conducted by the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association; Investigation of Engineering Education, 1923-1929, by the Council of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education; Nursing Schools Today and Tomorrow (1934) by the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools, composed of representatives of the National League of Nursing Education, American Nurses' Association, National Organization for Public Health Nursing, American Medical Association

(in the earlier years of the Committee's existence), American College of Surgeons, American Hospital Association, American Public Health Association, and several members-at-large. In all of these surveys research has not only been carried on for the specific purpose of raising standards of professional training, but it has directly and immediately supplemented other methods for achieving action.

Nursing Education and Grading of Schools

A larger role and more responsibility has been given in some instances to research as a means for accomplishing results than the Board of Education for Librarianship has yet accorded it. For example, the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools employed for some years as its director of studies Dr. May Burgess, an able statistician who was not a nurse. She considered research, largely unaided by other methods, competent to carry most of the responsibility for eliminating weak nursing schools and for appreciably raising standards in remaining schools. The several published studies prepared under her direction utilized the then most highly developed techniques-tables, diagrams often in color, and pictographs-to make the text more easily comprehended and more realistic. After a nationwide survey of nursing schools, conducted by extensive use of the questionnaire method, confidential copies of the three published reports were sent to each of more than 1,400 schools. These copies were so marked with red ink checks and other notations that a school could immediately see the place it occupied among all other schools of nursing in reference to a large number of items. Following the second survey made three years later to measure improvement, the same general procedure was used. By thus individualizing the results of the research, each school could prepare a composite picture of its relative strength and weakness for presentation, with recommendations, to its policy-making body.

The statistical research technique has probably never been employed so extensively or efficiently by any professional association in an attempt to raise its schools to a higher and more uniform level. The studies lasted from 1926 to 1934 and cost more than a quarter million dollars. Something of the magnitude of the task is reflected in the statement that before statistical tabulation even began, the mere process of receiving the first questionnaire, of noting on index cards how many forms were received, and of assigning a code number to each set of returns occupied eight workers approximately six weeks.

Does statistical research so highly refined and carried to such detail warrant the time and money expended? Even with pictorial aids, can it be made an instrumentality of maximum value for effecting change without depending heavily upon other non-research types of promotion? These are pertinent questions. The second grading of nursing schools showed clearly that very considerable progress had been made in a three-year period, and it is known that much of that progress resulted directly from the first grading. Some persons associated with nursing education believe, however, that the long range results have not been commensurate with the effort and cost. Short of an evaluation of accomplishment based upon exhaustive research, no substantial conclusion can be reached. In not another profession except teaching is there anything like the number of training institutions. Field visits to more than a selected list of them would be almost impossible. If all nursing schools, therefore, were to be given an opportunity to be graded, the statistical technique was indicated. In no other profession furthermore—unless it be the ministry—is change so difficult to achieve. This is the result of the fact that through fortuitous circumstances schools of nursing evolved as integral parts of hospitals. Hospitals have conceived of providing nursing care for patients as their first function. training of future nurses has been a secondary function. Even now relatively few schools are free to determine educational policies and to make professional training the major objective. long as hospitals control schools and put the needs of patients before those of students, no research -however excellent or whatever the techniquewill succeed in raising standards to the extent desired by the nursing leadership of the nation.

Development of Nursing and Dental Curricula

It should not be assumed that surveys and accreditation of schools constitute the only type of research prosecuted by professional associations in the field of education. Comprehensive studies of the curriculum, although fewer and less publicized, have been extremely fruitful. Two basic and important studies—one of the nursing curriculum, and one of the dental curriculum—merit particular attention.

The first edition of the Curriculum for Schools of Nursing, prepared under the direction of one of the deans of nursing education, Miss M. Adelaide Nutting, was published as early as 1917. Ten years later it was revised. In 1934 work began on a second and larger revision under the supervision of Professor Isabel Stewart, chairman of the Curriculum Committee of the National League of Nursing Education. Between 200 and 300 persons from all parts of the United States participated in this revision, which was published in 1937 as A Curriculum Guide of Nursing. These three editions have had a profound effect upon nursing education: they have been the schools' Bible.

Before describing the study of the dental curriculum, a digression is essential to note that for those professions where training is on a consistently higher and more uniform level than in nursing and where the leading schools have large facilities of their own for examination of curricula, no study by a national association is likely to exercise so large an influence. Neither the Association of American Law Schools nor the American Bar Association, for example, has ever undertaken through extensive research to formulate a This has redesirable law-school curriculum. sulted in considerable part from the fact that the great Langdellian reform of the curriculum and the introduction of the case method of teaching some seventy-five years ago at the Harvard Law School served as a pattern which nearly every full-time school in the nation sought almost slavishly to reproduce. Only in the past two decades has legal education begun to question sharply the wisdom of adhering to a pattern long since in need of drastic modification. Some schools have worked out varied changes for themselves, but the Association of American Law Schools has not yet committed itself to a nationwide examination of the contemporary needs of law students.

The second report to which reference must be made here is A Course of Study in Dentistry, prepared by the Curriculum Survey Committee of the American Association of Dental Schools and published by that Association in 1935. So suggestive for ambitious undertakings in research planning and methodology is this report that it will be described in some detail. Events prior to the initiation of the study and influences exerted by persons outside the profession will also be set down as illustrative of the way in which an association may find itself directed toward a specific and already partially formulated research task.

Clinical investigations and research during the first quarter of the twentieth century had demonstrated that common disorders of the teeth may produce serious systemic disorders and that superficially perfect dental service, judged by mechanical and aesthetic standards, may hide or induce local pathologic processes which have far-reaching consequences for the health of the person. herent in these discoveries were profound implications for dentistry, whose principal function had been conceived until then as restorative service. Just as it was beginning to be realized that this new knowledge demanded drastic overhauling and broadening of dental training, the Carnegie Foundation published, in 1926, Dental Education in the United States and Canada, which Dr. William J. Gies, the distinguished biochemist, had spent five years in preparing. The report made a significant contribution to a better understanding of the function of dentistry as an oral health service. Here, too, for the first time the important facts about dental education were brought together and correlated. Attention must be directed, Dr. Gies insisted, to the content of the dental curriculum and to improving dental teaching and research.

Even before the publication of the report, the American Association of Dental Schools began consideration of the problem of the curriculum. Among pertinent suggestions elicited from educational experts were several by Professor W. W. Charters, director of the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, in an address before the Association on The Importance of Research in Curriculum Construction. Dr. Charters advocated an "activity analysis" as the first step toward developing a sound curriculum. The activities and problems of the profession, he maintained, should be discovered and described with great definiteness. Only when such an analysis had been completed, would it be possible to build realistically a curriculum which would best enable students to carry on the activities of the profession.

Methods Used in Surveying Dental School Curricula

These suggestions led directly to the appointment by the Association in 1930 of a Curriculum Survey Committee that was to select educational advisers, prepare a plan to be submitted to the Carnegie Corporation, and carry into effect the plan adopted. As finally constituted, the Committee was composed of five deans of dental schools. Professor Charters and Professor Floyd W. Reeves of the University of Chicago were selected as advisers. Dr. L. E. Blauch, a professor of education and educational statistician, was appointed full-time executive secretary. Forty-one professors of dentistry served on subcommittees, and more than 100 participated in reviewing drafts of reports. The Carnegie Corporation contributed \$30,000 toward defraying costs.

The mandate for the study as outlined consisted of three parts: first, obtain a comprehensive view of the needs and requirements for oral health service; second, determine and outline the subject matter and experience that should be included in the various courses of the dental curriculum; third, arrange the courses in a suggested curriculum, decide upon requirements for admission to dental schools, and make appropriate recommendations. To obtain the requisite "comprehensive view," dental and medical literature were studied; dentists, physicians, and the laity were interviewed; questionnaires were sent to a limited number of laymen, public health officials, physicians, and dentists. All statistical studies of oral health in the United States were reviewed, and a list of oral diseases, disorders, and deficiencies was sent to nearly 500 selected dentists for checking as to frequency. Thus it was believed that a broad base of fact was laid upon which to build a program of dental education that would be in keeping with the welfare of the public.

A consideration of what dentists actually do, in conformity with Professor Charters' suggestion of an "activity analysis," led the Curriculum Survey Committee to group dental service under seven headings: diagnosis and treatment planning and radiography, prevention in dentistry, operative dentistry, orthodontics, oral medicine, oral surgery and anesthesia, and dental prosthesis. With these seven types of service established, the Committee was ready to proceed to have outlines made of the subject matter and experience that should be included in the curriculum. Subcommittees of experts, utilizing the services of the 41 teachers mentioned above, were created for this purpose. Each subcommittee held meetings with Dr. Blauch that frequently totaled twenty-five He directed and correlated the work of the subcommittees, kept the records, and pre-pared their reports. Each report was sent to an advisory group for review. Afterward, needed revisions were made.

The question of what shall be included in the basic science courses and how these and the clinical courses can be correlated has presented difficulty for several kinds of professional training. Dental schools had found the problem particularly troublesome before the concept of dentistry as oral health service had clearly evolved. The Curriculum Survey Committee realized that some progressive step must immediately be taken toward a solution. Consequently, it proposed that after a subcommittee had outlined the instruction in each clinical subject, an analysis be made of related knowledge and skill to be supplied by other subjects in the dental curriculum. These analyses were then to be presented to the subcommittees on the basic sciences for use as a starting point on At the same time these latter subtheir work. committees were to prepare additional analyses of the contributions that the basic sciences could make to dental education. With these two types of analyses before them, work could be begun in outlining the basic scientific courses.

At the 1934 meeting of the American Association of Dental Schools, dental teachers considered, in group conferences, the initial reports of the several subcommittees that had been sent to them earlier for individual study. These conferences gave the subcommittees opportunity to explain their reports and to elicit criticisms and comments. After the meeting each dental school was requested to make further study of the documents and to propose changes. From the initial reports and the suggestions of the group conferences and the schools, the executive secretary then prepared 30 chapters, each of which dealt with one curriculum subject. Included in every chapter was

not only an outline of the subject matter and, if appropriate, the laboratory and clinical exercises to be followed, but an introductory statement of the objective and the problems of instruction for that particular field.

The Committee was finally ready to undertake the last part of the study: the arrangement of the courses within a suggested curriculum. Although some dental schools still offered only a three-year curriculum, the Committee decided to distribute the courses over four academic years. It recommended the number of class hours for each course, and also for laboratory and clinic work where indicated. After consultation with specialists on college curricula, it decided furthermore that two years of college, rather than the one that was still the predominant requirement, be demanded for admission to schools of dentistry. In conclusion, the Committee made the farsighted recommendation that during his college years the student study some English, sociology, economics, and psychology, as well as specified amounts of chemistry and biology.

The published report stated that this study represented an effort by dental educators to apply to their problems the same scientific methods that were being employed in the study of other fields of education. The study was not an evaluation of practices current at the time it was being made. Rather was it an attempt to determine, "in the light of human needs," what constitutes an adequate undergraduate dental curriculum. The Committee had no intention of presenting a final curriculum in dentistry, or even one to be adopted in its totality by all schools. "Constant adjustment of the materials of instruction to new principles and needs is a problem that is ever present with the progressive educator." The course of study was conceived as a guide for and a challenge to those teachers and administrators who wished to develop and improve their instruction.

It was believed that the study would also be of real use to state boards of dental examiners in facilitating a common understanding of what constitutes adequate training for the practice of dentistry. Hope was expressed furthermore that the conclusions would be utilized by dentists interested in dental education, prospective dental students and vocational advisers, administrative officers of colleges and universities, and those members of the laity who help to formulate educational policies and who contribute funds for experimental work in the field of education.

Miscellaneous Research Projects Concerning Education

In addition to extensive surveys of schools and studies of curriculum, professional associations have engaged in a large number of miscellaneous research enterprises relating to professional education. The American Association of Dental Schools has recently published Teaching in Colleges and Universities with Special Reference to Dentistry. The Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education produced, in 1945, A Manual of Graduate Study in Engineering. The American Association of Teachers Colleges has made investigations of the library, the extension activities, the student teaching arrangements, and the personnel program in teachers' colleges. The National League of Nursing Education is now at work on a study of postgraduate nursing education.

Aptitude Test for Screening At Entrance to Professions

Current experimental research in developing selection and guidance tests for prospective students is being undertaken by several associations. In engineering this research is under the joint auspices of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, the Engineers' Council for Professional Development, and the Carnegie "Batteries of examinations," pre-Foundation. pared under competent engineering educators and technical experts and known as Pre-Engineering Inventory, have been given since 1944 by a selected list of co-operating schools of engineering to applicants for admission. Objective achievement examinations are now being formulated to evaluate the student's progress during the prespecialization phase of the engineering curriculum. These tests are important as a more scientific means for admitting to professional schools only those students whose interests and aptitudes are adequate for the making of able forward-looking engineers. What is more important, however, is the fact that testing is viewed as one device for, and one part of a co-ordinated attack upon, solving the problem of how the technical and social goals of engineering may be advanced and the profession may be accorded larger public responsibility and recognition.

It should be noted parenthetically that the Engineers' Council for Professional Development was established in 1932 for the express purpose of enlarging the function, quality of work, and prestige of engineering. To a difficult task it has brought conscientious effort and imagination. Its past undertakings indicate that research, carried on co-operatively with other engineering associations, will probably be made an increasingly dynamic part of its program for improving engineering education and other components of professional growth.

Research Relating to the Enlargement of Professional Service

As recognition of their service in behalf of the public welfare, society has conferred upon the professions special privileges and status. In the United States unlike many other countries, it has left much autonomy in their hands for deciding upon the number of persons who shall enter the profession, how they shall be trained, where they shall practice and under what conditions, what their remuneration shall be and how it shall be collected. Partly because of the failure of the professions to exercise adequate self-regulation, recent decades have seen the growth of some control through statutory law and the administrative rulings of state examining or licensing boards. Even now, however, the professions are still largely vested with their own control.

In the light of these facts the layman might readily assume that the primary task of every professional association would be consideration of how that profession could discharge its particular social duty of making service, sufficient both in quantity and quality, available to all persons everywhere and at a cost that could be borne by them individually, in groups, or through the use of private and tax contributed funds. Because hundreds of specialized organizations engage in extending and improving special services professional associations are not absolved from responsi-To the very degree that specialized organizations flourish, the task of viewing the nation and its composite needs becomes increasingly imperative. Hence, the layman might take it for granted that an active and efficient research staff would be attached at least to the individual membership association of every profession for the exclusive purpose of wrestling with this problem.

Research Relating to Distribution of Professional Service

Probably nothing relating to the professions comes as such a shock to the representative of the public interest as the failure of most professional associations to be continuously concerned with scientific planning for the distribution of adequate services in all areas of the United States. Considerable research, to be discussed later, has been devoted to salaries and fees. Professional interest here, however, has been centered predominantly upon what the profession will receive as compensation for its services, rather than upon the larger issue of how society can purchase the requisite amount of professional services at a figure which guarantees reasonable remuneration to those persons who provide the services.

So little research is done in this all important field that many professional associations can not even now produce from their files any analysis or supplementation of the rough federal census data relating to the number of their profession engaged in practice. (In behalf of a more equitable distribution of dentists the American Dental Associa-

tion published, in 1946, Distribution of Dentists in the United States, a study that discusses distribution of population and dentists in the prewar period, subsequent shifts in population, populationdentist ratios, and family income by counties.) Answers to more difficult but vitally important questions, like the amount of service available to rural areas, have been provided by very few associations. The major responsibility for obtaining such broad, factual data as have been made available, on the basis of which policy and program can be formulated, is still borne almost exclusively by the public through agencies financed either by tax funds or private gifts. In the field of medical economics, to use the most conspicuous example, the Bureau of the Census, the United States Public Health Service, the Farm Security Administration, the Children's Bureau, the Social Security Board, the Committee on Research in Medical Economics, the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, the Milbank Memorial Fund, Johns Hopkins University through Professor Henry E. Yale University through Professor Franz Goldmann, and many other agencies have carried on important research and collected basic data.

The large and well-financed American Medical Association has failed to do an appropriate share of the work. Although it has long maintained a small Bureau of Medical Economics, the selection of subjects for study, the conclusions reached, and the methodology employed have often failed to meet the established criteria of competent economic research. To one viewing the results from without, it has frequently appeared as if studies had been made to substantiate policy already formulated rather than to discover the facts from which policy might spring. That a technically qualified director of research is needed to bring to this Bureau the prestige that will place the AMA in the position of leadership that should be expected of it has recently been recognized by the Association. Plans are now being made to expand and strengthen appreciably the work of the Bureau.

From time to time a professional association has examined some aspect of the extension of service or of methods of payment that seemed of particular significance to it. The American Dental Association decided in 1930, for example, that there was need for definite information on health insurance, particularly as it operated in Europe. A Committee on the Study of Dental Practice was appointed, which engaged A. M. Simons and Nathan Sinai, two responsible economists, to examine health insurance in several European countries and to prepare the report. The Way of Health Insurance, published in 1932, has received wide examination by dentists, physicians, and the laity, and has been a distinct contribution

to knowledge about compulsory and voluntary health insurance.

Thereafter the American College of Dentists created a standing Socio-Economics Committee to consider extension of dental service. Discussion centered around clinic practice as a means of caring for the dentally needy. It was discovered that no realistic thinking was possible about proposals for dental service to low-income groups until detailed and precise information was available of the cost of, and the professional time required for, adequate dental care of adults. Hence a study was made of nearly 500 adults who had received essential and sustained dental service over a four or five-year period at Dental Health Service, a pay clinic for low-income patients in New York City. Mrs. Dorothy Fahs Beck, who had already done research in dental economics, planned the extensive statistical analysis. When Costs of Dental Care for Adults under Specific Clinical Conditions was published in 1943, facts were available for the first time about actual maintenance care for adults: what services were needed, how much time was reguired annually to provide them, what they cost the patient and the clinic. (Something had already been known about the initial care of Statistical analysis was also available for the first time that contrasted initial and maintenance care for the same adults. The study demonstrated that a clear distinction between the two types of care needed to be made in planning dental programs. Finally, the publication presented the first extensive comparison between dental fees and costs. On the other hand, it did not concern itself with the question of the use of insurance or public funds as a means for financing dental care.

The largest provision for continuing studies of distribution and financing of service is probably made by the National Education Association. Almost twenty-five years ago it established a Research Division which has had a dynamic and fruitful existence. As the result of established policy, a considerable part of the Division's work relates to "technical professional problems," such as educational opportunity, supply of and demand for teachers, teacher preparation, illiteracy, school attendance, progress in rural education. Among the technical problems, legislation and the financing of schools receive major attention. Through its state school legislative service the Research Division regularly supplies statistical material to local, state, and national leaders concerned with school legislation. This service is provided through a stream of published bulletins, mimeographed releases, and answers to letters of inquiry.

Its studies of the financing of education are numerous. School costs, comparisons by state of school support, relative wealth of states, state school equalization funds, federal support of education—every such topic that lends itself to statistical presentation is kept constantly to the fore. New situations are quickly reflected in further studies. For instance, the Division has interested itself in the effect of recent court decisions upon the financing of Negro education. It has prepared memoranda on how to offset the tactics of groups that seek to cripple school systems financially. Upon request it assists the Committee on Tax Education and School Finance of the NEA not merely by preparing research data but by outlining and directing conferences on school finance, preparing proceedings, and issuing releases on significant taxation trends.

Research Relating to Salaries and Personnel Policies

Teachers

The second large area which the Research Division of the NEA cultivates is that of the "welfare questions" of teachers: salary, tenure, retirement, training requirements, status of married women teachers, examination for appointment, leave of absence, sick leave. Research is pursued as assiduously and continuously in connection with these questions as with technical professional problems. Questionnaires flow out to superintendents of school systems, replies come back in generous numbers and are tabulated, comparative reports are sent to persons in strategic positions for eventuating change. Since a research bulletinillustrated with tables, graphs, and pictures and devoted to a specific subject in one of its two areas of studies—is published quarterly, the Division has excellent means for making its findings readily available to school boards, school administrators, legislators, libraries, and lay organizations. When one bulletin is not sufficient to complete presentation of a subject, the following issue serves as a continuation. Thus two issues were devoted in recent years to Personnel Procedures. The first dealt with Selection and Appointment; the second with Employment Conditions in Service. Space set aside in the Journal of the NEA for discussion of teachers' economic welfare permits the Division to reach many individual teachers.

So close is the supposed relationship between salaries offered and the caliber of teachers employed that the NEA has made a biennial study since 1922–1923 of the salaries paid in city-school systems. The size of this repeated study is indicated by these figures concerning the 1944–1945 survey: included were almost 350,000 teachers; 50 per cent of all city-school systems; and 74 per cent of those in cities with more than 30,000 population.

Toward the end of the 1930's an NEA Committee on the Economic Status of the Rural Teacher insisted upon the importance of an investigation of the economic problems of teachers in places of under 2,500 population. A questionnaire was sent out to which more than 12,000 teachers replied. The replies provided information, subsequently published, about the professional status of rural teachers; their family responsibilities and living conditions; their transportation facilities; their cultural, recreational, and economic opportunities; and their financial status, including amounts of school salary and other income received, uses of income during a twelve-month period, amounts of property and of indebtedness accumulated, and reactions of the teachers to their financial problems.

Dentists

The income of its members has interested several other professional associations. Maurice Leven's The Practice of Dentistry and the Income of Dentists in Twenty States: 1929, sponsored by the Committee on the Study of Dental Practice of the ADA, was a substantial economic study that correlated size of city, type of practice, years of experience, and working time with dental income. It discussed dental expenditures and the ratio of net income to gross income. Finally it gave national estimates of total professional income of dentists in private practice.

Nurses

Dr. May Burgess' Nurses, Patients, and Pocket-books, published in 1928 as the first of the studies sponsored by the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools, examined the economics of nursing. Among many facts revealed was that of the shocking inadequacy of annual income earned by the average special duty nurse, and the more favorable although small income of the public health and the institutional nurse. Throughout the report ran an implicit interest in the need of a large sector of society for nursing service which it was financially unable to purchase. No extensive study was made, however, of the relation between nurses' earnings and patients' ability to pay for nursing care.

This study has been followed by several others. Between 1935 and 1938, 23 state nurses' associations co-operated with the American Nurses' Association in a Study of Income, Salaries and Employment Conditions Affecting Nurses, exclusive of those engaged in public health nursing. During the war, conditions in institutional nursing changed so drastically that the ANA requested the National League of Nursing Education, in 1943, to study the salaries of general staff nurses and also the personnel practices of the hospitals that employed those nurses. Included under personnel practices were arrangements for housing,

hours of duty, opportunities for professional development, physical examinations, and provisions for illness and for vacations.

The National Organization for Public Health Nursing has demonstrated exceptional interest in the number and salaries of public health nurses, and in the personnel practices of the agencies employing them. It has made a count of public health nurses more often than has almost any other professional association, while it prepares reports on salaries at frequent intervals. One of its studies of personnel practices, Personnel Policies in Public Health Nursing, published in 1937, was confined to the practices of official health agencies. At that time there were some 2,500 governmental agencies, employing 12,000 public health nurses or more than half of all such nurses. So important was the proposed survey thought to be that the Milbank Memorial Fund provided both financial support and the services of a technical director, while the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company assisted in the tabulation of data.

Fact-finding was done through questionnaires, and through field visits to the offices of selected federal, state, county, and city health departments, and the health departments of public schools. Observational visits were also made to the clinics, school inspections, class teaching, and home visiting in which some 2,000 nurses were employed. The plan of study as formulated concerned itself with two groups of policies. The first group related to the selection of personnel-educational requirements, salaries, methods of selection, application forms, promotions and rating, health examinations, citizenship, residence, age, and personality. The second group concerned general administrative policies for employees: hours of work, vacations, leaves of absence, retirement, pensions, and insurance.

The completed report not only presented a picture of actual personnel practices, accompanied by recommendations, that the NOPHN could use in counseling individual agencies but which public agencies could consult to discover whether their own policies were in line with national trends. The field visits in themselves had done so much to cause certain agencies to plan immediate revision of policies, that some of the data were outdated shortly after publication. The quick obsolescence of statistical studies in any field where change is actively going on is an inevitable problem for which there can be no solution except repeating the study, as is now being done by the NOPHN. Fortunately, however, obsolescence is generaly an indication of desirable change and one toward which the use of the research technique has appreciably contributed.

Engineers

The engineering societies have been interested in the classification and compensation of engineers since 1919, and some of the best salary analyses made by professional associations have been sponsored by these societies. They have now attained sufficient prestige to exert considerable influence over systems of classification and compensation of engineers. For example, in 1940 the American Society of Civil Engineers was requested to sponsor a survey of engineering positions and salaries in the Arizona State Highway Depart-Similar requests came shortly afterward from Nevada and Nebraska. On the basis of the three resulting surveys, an ASCE Manual of Engineering Practice was prepared that discussed principles of classifications, grade specifications, job descriptions, and rating systems. The Society published this Manual in the belief that the material was applicable not only to highway departments but, by appropriate extension, to other engineering units. other engineering units. An indication of the degree to which the ASCE has carried classification, as a basis for establishing salary rates, is to be seen in the survey completed in December, 1945, of engineering positions under the Los Angeles County government. The relative levels of no fewer than 102 separate engineering and architectural jobs were established.

Librarians

The American Library Association has also been active in devising classification and salary levels. In 1927 it published the first proposed classification and compensation plans for library positions. In 1938 its Board on Salaries, Staff and Tenure issued a more ambitious study under the title, Classification and Pay Plans for Municipal Public Libraries. (A similar undertaking applicable to institutions of higher learning is now being made.) Increased interest in certification, in civil service, and in state aid has created a demand for uniform standards for libraries. The Board maintains that "uniform standards will provide the only basis on which sound development in the profession can proceed."

The 1938 study, therefore, was designed to create those standards. Its first section defined eleven classes of municipal public libraries, ranging from the simplest village library to the largest city institution. Figures for per capita budgets and suggested number of staff were assigned to each class. The second section defined ten grades of professional service, two of sub-professional, and three of clerical. Under each grade appeared minimum qualifications as to education and experience, recommended salaries, and typical positions. It is interesting to note that suggested salaries ranged from \$1,500 for the beginning salary for the first professional grade to \$10,000

for the tenth grade. The third section of the report consisted of a sample card with explicit directions whereby each library could rate itself. A score of 75 out of a possible 100 points was considered the minimum "passing grade" for each class of library. After the rating had been completed, a library was in a position to report to its board or to the citizens of the community exactly where it stood in regard to each item, and to ask for needed changes.

Physicians and Lawyers

Examination of earnings is more difficult in those professions whose members work largely on a fee-for-service rather than a salary basis. This fact may explain in some small part why studies of earnings have so rarely been made by the American Medical Association and the American Bar Association. Yet the report on income of dentists, already mentioned, indicates that the problem is no insuperable one when handled by competent research methods. Such information as is available about doctors' earnings comes principally from the investigations of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care which was not a professional body and the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the federal Department of Commerce. The Bureau of Medical Economics of the AMA has done something in this field to be sure, as evidenced by its small study, Income from Medical Practice, published in 1931. It has maintained no such continuing research, however, as has the NEA or the NOPHN.

The economic depression of the 1930's proved so serious a threat to the legal profession that the American Bar Association, which has little knowledge of social research techniques and has rarely engaged in the type of study discussed in this article, created in 1937 a Special Committee on the Economic Condition of the Bar. The Committee decided that the contemplated nationwide survey of the bar was impracticable. It believed that "experimentation in planning and method had not yet proceeded far enough to enable a national survey to be projected with any confidence of success." Hence the Committee decided to correlate the most significant findings in the surveys of the bar that had recently been made in Connecticut, Wisconsin, Missouri, New York County, and California, and to include further statistics on number and incomes of lawyers prepared by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. These statistical sections formed one part of The Economics of the Legal Profession, published in

Another part of the report presented various suggestions, prepared from existing literature or from requested memoranda not based on research, looking toward the improvement of the economic condition of the bar and the expansion of its service to the public. Discussed were proposals for reduction in the number of lawyers; prevention of lay competition by banks, trust and insurance companies; wider employment of lawyers in government service; reduction of overhead expenses; improvement in the attitudes of the public toward lawyers by more varied and better publicity; creation of legal reference bureaus for answering inquiries and referring potential clients to suitable attorneys; and establishment of legal service bureaus to handle cases for clients with small economic resources. The final portion of the report discussed in detail how the five state and county surveys noted above had been conducted. They were to serve as methodological guides to other state and local bar associations that were urged to conduct similar surveys.

No original research was involved in this study. Rather was it an attempt to make available quickly certain existing data and proposals. The work was done by a committee of very busy members of the bar. No full-time professional staff was employed, and no advisory body of persons experienced in surveys and economic research was created. As a result the study, even within the sharp limits decided upon, reflected haste, and lack of adequate planning and editorial incisiveness. This initial undertaking, moreover, has not proved to be a preface to more substantial efforts. Although a Committee on the Economic Condition of the Bar has been continued, its periodic reports to the ABA have not been grounded in factual investigations. On occasion the chairman has attempted to have some information collected by the secretarial staff of his law office. He has naturally been aware of the inadequacy of such a method.

As yet, however, the ABA—representing one of the oldest, most powerful, and economically best situated professions in America—has made almost no provision for full-time, research personnel attached to its central office, part of whose function would be preparation of data needed by committees. (Even the small staff attached to the Section on Legal Education and Admission to the Bar has been more concerned with administration of program than with research.) Neither has the ABA attempted to solve the organizational problem of how committees, relieved of any task of investigation, can devote continuing and productive effort to policy-making with some assurance that that policy will be translated dynamically into the program of the Association. search facilities have been established and the results of research are brought by committees before the governing body, with carefully formulated recommendations for action, it is difficult to see how the ABA can plan wisely for the future of its own membership, to say nothing of planning for adequate service to society.

Research Relating to the Structure and Function of Professional Associations

As preceding pages have indicated, professional associations have contributed much through research to raising and maintaining standards of professional training, and something to investigation of how services may be extended. In the past two decades they have exhibited interest in studying the salary levels and the personnel practices of the agencies that employ their members. They have also engaged in a variety of miscellaneous studies.

Rarely, as yet, have they discovered that their own organizational structure and function are subjects for appropriate and often needed research. Like an extroverted person, they have been so engaged in activity that they have spent little time in examining themselves. Has not their function been set down in their constitution, and have the by-laws not provided some outline of organizational structure? With these definitions recorded on paper and hallowed by the years, many an association has given little basic consideration to itself unless annoying questions have arisen with such frequency and insistence that they could not be disregarded. The questions that have appeared have generally seemed to grow out of sharp differences of opinion about the formulation or administration of specific parts of programs or about the competence of professional staff or voluntary board members to fulfill their obligations. Some answer has usually been found by the conference method, without benefit of research and without much effort to discover whether the particular problem were not a manifestation of deeper, more serious difficulties.

However, when professional associations are viewed as a component part of an ever-changing, on-going society, and when they are seen as acting upon that society and being in turn acted upon by it, the need for frequent and profound selfexamination becomes at once apparent. Is the association adapting itself to new conditions, or are its functions much like those of a generation ago? Has it adjusted its program and philosophy to the growth of many specialized organizations within the profession? Has it largely ignored these later organizations or has it, through cooperative undertakings, sought some co-ordination of effort? Has it attempted to build bridges of communication with comparable associations in related professions, or does it live isolated from them?

Has the association sought to defite concretely what responsibility it owes to society, to its membership? To what extent has it translated responsibility into program? Has it attempted to evaluate the results achieved?

Does the association know what society considers its function to be, and whether the laity believes it is fulfilling that function? If it knows, is it satisfied with the verdict of public opinion? If not, does it have an obligation either to change its program or to change public opinion?

These are a few of the questions that demand attention if any association wishes to relate itself actively to social trends. The answers will indicate whether an association is moving ahead in the company of other associations and with the support of thoughtful members of society, or whether it has set beside the road until the procession has left it far behind.

The American Medical Association

In recent months associations representing two professions have sought to find the answers through research to some of these questions. The American Medical Association had become increasingly aware of the loss of sympathetic support from important sections both of the laity and its own membership. (Much of the work of the AMA, such as that of the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals, has been viewed with great favor by the public. Criticism has centered principally around the Association's long failure to provide leadership in attacking the problem of the distribution of medical care, and its bitter opposition to almost all suggested plans for the extension of health services and even to public consideration of such plans.) Disturbed by the situation in which it found itself, the AMA asked for an examination of its public relations by Raymond Rich Associates, a commercial agency which acts as counsel in matters of management and public relations to non-profit organizations serving the public interest. The agency maintains that desirable public relations can be built only on the basis of "positive and constructive policies; effective, adequate and co-ordinated action; balanced and efficient promotional and interpretive facilities." Hence the research conducted by these technical experts went far beyond consideration of public relations, and resulted in a series of recommendations for considerable change in the organizational structure, personnel, and various aspects of the program of the AMA. Recommendations relating to structure and personnel are already being acted upon. If the Association is able to reorient its philosophy and to engage in a dynamic program, it will, in the eyes of its critics, have moved on to the highway along which a number of other professional groups are traveling.

Professional Associations in the Nursing Field

An even more interesting development has occurred within the nursing profession. Six national associations—American Nurses' Association, National League of Nursing Education, National Organization for Public Health Nursing, National Association of Colored Graduate Nurses, Association of Collegiate Schools of Nursing, and American Association of Industrial Nurses—have embarked upon an investigation of organizational structure. The quick and decisive action needed subsequent to 1940 for formulating essential wartime policy and for recruiting and training sufficient nurses could not be taken by these groups working independently. National Nursing Council for War Service was created with representation first from five of the above bodies and later from additional services. This Council demonstrated the advantages of more closely co-ordinated action. The associations, therefore, began to ask themselves what form of postwar structure would permit maximum co-ordination and thus provide nursing with some means of speaking authoritatively as a unified whole.

It should be understood that there had been no essential conflict in the fundamental purposes of these organizations. Although the ANA, for example, tended to concern itself with the welfare of nurses while the NOPHN spoke more incisively in behalf of the social welfare, all of the groups in varying degrees were interested in the development and distribution of types of nursing service needed to care for the sick and to promote the health of the nation. Their social point of view was well in advance of that manifested by the associations of some other professions. So was the amount of co-operative effort they had achieved through joint committees, joint board meetings held once or twice annually, and interlocking boards of directors.

In spite of these facts they maintained—with real insight—that specialized organizations almost inevitably produce "specialized loyalties" and that such loyalties "tend to create irresponsibility in relation to the common purpose." Hence they concluded that an objective study should be made, by competent persons outside the associations, of the type of structure whereby they could best co-operate with government and civic agencies; co-ordinate, strengthen, and finance national programs; and provide services needed but not now adequately given. Raymond Rich Associates were asked to undertake the study, with the assistance of an advisory council. The preliminary report will supposedly be made in the autumn of 1946.

This is probably the first attempt to decide, on the basis of research, what the relationships of the associations within a given profession should be. It is a question of great importance for every profession, but particularly for one like engineering where associations are exceptionally numerous. Hence, if workable recommendations to the nursing associations can be evolved, this forwardlooking step may have considerable influence over other professions.

Interrelationships Cutting Across Professional Lines

As yet no study has been made of the interrelationships of associations that cut across professional lines. Phyicians, dentists, nurses, public health officials, medical and psychiatric social workers, and medical scientists, for example, all have their raison d'être only in the prevention of disease and the providing of health services. Each group represents a specialty in some aspect of health care, but so intertwined is the work of these groups that none can function effectively without the assistance of the others. This obvious fact, however, has been little reflected in the programs of the several professional associations. Rarely are opportunities available even for joint conferences about small matters of common interest. More rarely is a co-ordinated attack made upon a problem that should be of equal concern to all the groups.

If and when these professional associations are mutually convinced that it is their social obligation to make extension and improvement of health services their first order of business, joint planning through research will be requisite. Attempts will have to be made to plot the area of common purpose and the potential productivity of unified action within that area. With that step successfully taken, organization and program will then have to be devised whereby the several associations can work as one functional group. Such an undertaking might appear staggering were it not for the fact that its very initiation would place these associations in a position to make an effective request both for technical and financial assist-So long has the inadequacy of health service, particularly in rural areas, plagued this country that the public would quickly respond to any really united effort by the health professions toward its solution.

In every profession potential relationships with other professions lie uncultivated and generally unexplored, to the expense both of society and the profession itself. If associations are to rise to the level of true national statesmanship, the boundaries that separate them must be dissolved. They must plan and act together in regard to many issues of American life. Such planning and acting, however, can not be performed with wisdom unless preceded by painstaking but imaginative research.

AASW Board and Delegate Conference Consider Proposal for an Association Program of Research

A T the March 1946 meeting of the AASW Board, Miss Anne Geddes, Chairman of the National Committee on Research and Statistics in Social Work, reported that "the committee has come to the conclusion that if the Association is to develop a substantive program in research and statistics, it must have adequate technical staff service."

Miss Geddes presented the formal recommendations of the committee:

Need for a Research Program Within the AASW

Inherent in the development of the program of a professional association is the provision of a research service to supply basic information to staff, chapters and committees. The needs of the AASW for a research service are reflected in recent requests of the various committees for information essential for carrying out their assignments. For example, the Committee on Registration and Licensing has proposed a census of all social workers and the Committee on Personnel Practices desires extensive factual information on job classification, salaries and education.

In order soundly to develop its program, the AASW should have available such data as the following: Number and characteristics of social workers; education and experience of social workers; salaries of social workers; types of social work positions; present and anticipated demand for social workers; personnel policies and practices in agencies employing social workers; scope and content of social work in all its branches; information regarding social work and other professions.

The Committee on Research and Statistics in Social Work is convinced that such information cannot satisfactorily be developed by committees but requires special staff with appropriate qualifications. It recognizes, however, the importance of a continued study program by the committees of the Association and the chapters.

We believe that a research service should perform the following functions:

- 1. In consultation with the several committees of the Association, planning, direction and supervision of special studies and preparation of reports for publication and other use.
- 2. Preparation of factual material needed by the Board, committees and chapters in carrying out their responsibilities.
- 3. Cooperation in the analysis of legislative proposals.
- 4. Development and maintenance of a file of information bearing on the profession of social work.
- 5. Research consultation on request to chapters.
- Cooperation and consultation with other professional associations and research agencies in the development of information relating to the profession of social work.

To perform the functions enumerated above the Committee on Research and Statistics in Social Work recommends to the Board the appointment of one full-time well-qualified research person and one statistical assistant. We estimate that the annual salaries for these two persons would be about \$7500. Some additional expenses for secretarial and tabulating service would be involved.

Later in the meeting after discussion of future program the following motion was carried:

That the Board approve as a desirable function for the Association a research service to develop and stimulate the development of basic information necessary to the Board, committees and chapters of the Association in carrying out their responsibilities.

The 1946 Delegate Conference, in approving payment of increased dues to provide for an expanded Association program, included research as one of the activities to be given increased emphasis in the future. There was however no specific commitment as to the amount of money to be expended for the research program.

Use of Research Materials in Social Work Education

By Arthur P. Miles, Chairman, Department of Social Work, University of Wisconsin

SCHOOLS of social work have numerous responsibilities in the area of social research. Research materials should be utilized in the teaching of all courses. Future research specialists should be receiving their training in the schools today. The schools of social work, more than any social agencies, should be centers for the production or original and meaningful research projects. In this brief article an attempt will be made to assess the extent to which the schools are carrying out these important responsibilities, with special emphasis upon the use of research materials in professional education.

Although the schools of social work are mindful of the historical interest in practical and meaningful social research, they have not made the contributions to research that might be desired. Faculty members of the schools have been, in the main, consumers of research rather than creators. This does not condemn the schools because there are a number of good reasons for this situation. In the first place, social work education is young. The schools are still struggling to secure the complete acceptance of social work as a respectable academic discipline worthy of first-rate consideration in the university community. Limited budgets, small faculties, and the lack of special research funds are the tangible indications of this dilemma. These factors do not provide the scholar with an ideal research atmosphere.

In the second place, the faculty members of the schools have been recruited primarily from the field of social practice. Their interest continues to be in social practice rather than in social research. While some faculty members have come from agencies where research, rather than social treatment, has been the major emphasis, they have been in the minority. Also in the minority are the faculty members who have come to social work from the related social sciences where the emphasis upon research has been more pronounced.

Thirdly, one should note that the great demand for social workers has been, and still is, for practitioners of case work—and to a lesser extent community organization and social group work—rather than specialists in research. Professional schools can hardly be expected to develop areas in which there is relatively little current demand,

especially when they cannot satisfy the demand for practitioners in other areas.

Fourthly, with the curricula of the professional schools geared primarily to the training of case workers and with the acceptance of the basic character of case work in all social work, social research has been relegated to a minor role. The refinements in social treatment have demanded more and more of the student's time for instruction in case work and supervised field work. We are now at the place where it is not possible for students in a two years graduate curriculum to meet the course requirements in case work and supervised field work and, at the same time, properly prepare themselves for specialization in social research. Should training for research be considered as a third year of graduate preparation? At the present time—particularly in view of the relatively low salaries in social work 1-I should answer this question in the negative. Research, it seems to me, should be a fundamental part of the regular curriculum.

In the last place, one should mention that social workers, like physicians and lawyers, have been genuinely concerned with the individual in our society. So much so, in fact, that our professional relationships have been built almost exclusively on a person-to-person and person-byperson basis, leading us to become preoccupied with this relationship at the expense of all other relationships. It has undoubtedly had a negative effect upon the development of social work research. Research, even though it may be in the field of social case work, requires a somewhat different philosophical approach than social case treatment. The research worker is not interested in social treatment per se. Rather, he is interested in the similarity of various individual cases and concerned with the scientific description of sequential events. In short, the research worker is engaged in a quest for scientific facts that will ultimately lead to generalized, not particularized, knowledge. A recognition of the essential differences between social research and social practice

¹ See David M. Schneider, "AASW Members—As Revealed by 1945 Membership Census," The Compass, Vol. XXVII, No. 5 (July, 1946), pp. 4-8. Schneider notes, however, that social research was "among the fields offering somewhat better compensation than the average."

does not mean that there is any antipathy between the two. As a matter of fact, a case worker who is trained to recognize individual differences in human behavior has to have a standard of normal behavior from which to judge these differences. Such a standard, to be professionally sound, has to be built upon scientific research and not based upon the whims and fancies of the individual worker. Mary E. Richmond's Social Diagnosis, which Philip Klein has described as the greatest single contribution of a social worker to the social sciences,2 is proof of this.

In spite of all these obvious difficulties schools of social work are using research materials in teaching, training research workers, and making contributions to research. A professional, as distinct from a vocational, point of view demands that all courses be taught through the use of research materials. As a specific example of what is being done along these lines in the schools I should like to cite the field of public welfare. This is not the only field where research materials are abundant; I have chosen it only because I am familiar with it.

It is now possible to teach public welfare from a social scientific research point of view. While it is impossible in a brief article of this sort to list all the studies that have made this approach possible, mention should be made of the most important. Particular note should be made of Miss Sophonisba P. Breckinridge's Public Welfare Administration in the United States: Select Documents,³ Miss Edith Abbott's Public Assistance: Volume I, American Principles and Policies, and Miss Grace Abbott's The Child and the State.⁵ Up-to-date text books have recently been published that take advantage of these and other research materials: R. Clyde White's Administration of Public Welfare 6 and Marietta Stevenson's Public Welfare Administration.⁷ The research point of view emphasized in these volumes can be supplemented in teaching with numerous other studies, particularly those on the history of the poor laws. The work of Sidney and Beatrice Webb and a host of other British social economists set exacting research standards for the poor law series of the School of Social

² Philip Klein, "Mary Richmond's Formulation of a New Science," in Stuart Rice (ed), Methods in Social Science (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931), p. 95. See also his article on "Social Case Work" in The Envelopedia of the Social Case Work." in The Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences, Vol. 14, pp.

³ Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

4 Ibid., 1940.

Torus, 1940.

Two volumes, Ibid, 1938.

New York: American Book Co., 1940.

New York: Harper and Brothers, 1938. Mention should also be made of Robert W. Kelso's Science of Public Welfare (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1928), an excellent book which unfortunately is now

Service Administration, University of Chicago, and the work of numerous others. John L. Gillin's History of Poor Relief Legislation in Iowa 8 and Robert W. Kelso's The History of Poor Relief in Massachusetts, 1620-1920 9 are examples of two of the best of these studies.

A number of foundations have published research studies in the field of public welfare. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation have been partciularly noteworthy, especially Lea H. Feder's Unemployment Relief in Periods of Depression (1936), Alice Campbell Klein's Civil Service and Public Welfare (1940) and Donald S. Howard's WPA and Federal Relief Policy (1943).

In recent years the schools have been able to use various research studies of the federal and state agencies, as well as those of the American Public Welfare Association. Research conducted by government agencies, while always of high excellence, is directed toward specific administrative problems and not always generalized enough for the best class room use. Also, public agencies do not always study and write-up some of their most important activities. For example: a significant service of the Bureau of Public Assistance, Social Security Administration to the teaching of public welfare would be a detailed and scientific study of an important supervisory device of the Bureau, the administrative review.

All of the social work journals devote space to research studies in public welfare. The studies reported in The Social Service Review and the Social Service Monographs edited by the staff of the Review are especially valuable to the teacher. The field of public welfare has in Public Welfare, the Journal of the American Public Welfare Association, a magazine devoted to its own needs.

From this cursory examination of the research materials available in public welfare it is obvious that schools have an ample number of sources from which to select teaching materials.10 The same is equally true of the other fields of social work. The important question, it seems to me, is not related to the adequacy of research materials. Rather, it is this: do we in the schools actually teach our subjects from a research point of view?

8 Iowa City: The State Historical Society, 1914.

9 Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1922.

¹⁰ It is not the purpose of this article to present a complete bibliography of the field of public welfare. For complete bibliography of the field of public Welfare. For such a bibliography, together with comments on the definition and limitations of the field, see "Report of the Sub-Committee on Public Welfare to the Curriculum Committee of the American Association of Schools of Social Work" (mimeographed and distributed by the Association, 1313 E. 60th St., Chicago, 37, Ill., 1942).

It is obviously possible to compile a lengthy bibliography of research materials without imparting to the students a critical, analytical point of view. As Mary E. Richmond reminded us long ago, "the adaptation of general principles to specific instances will not be automatic" in the field of social work.11

Furthermore, if we wish to have the research in social agencies done by those who have training in social work as well as in social research we must do more than teach the established courses with a research emphasis: we must make more courses in research available in the two year curriculum. Much of the research work that is currently being carried on in social agencies, especially public agencies, is being done by persons trained and experienced in social science research but wholly untrained, and often inexperienced, in social work. As a minimum preparation for social research in social work I would tentatively suggest at least two courses in social statistics, two in methods of social study, and supervised field work in a research agency. In addition, students should have the basic first year of training in social work and a liberal sampling of courses in the related social sciences.

There are indications that we are beginning to formulate general principles and to teach all social work from a scientific research point of view. The trend in social work education is definitely in the direction of an intelectual integration of social work practice and the various social sciences. Or, to express it in a slightly different way, we have recognized that social work as an art is dependent upon the social and biological sciences for its scientific basis. In 1931 when Maurice Karpf published his study The Scientific Basis of Social Work¹² it received scant critical attention from the profession, largely because the profession was not yet ready for it. Even as late as 1936 the profession was not prepared to give proper recognition to this point of view as expressed in Frank Bruno's Theory of Social Work. 18 More recently, however, the point of view enunciated in these books has received widespread recognition. Miss Gordon Hamilton in her stimulating and provocative article on "Education for Social Work" in The Social Work Yearbook, 1945 emphasized this point of view.

She reminds us that the professional schools have a two-fold purpose, "advancing professional knowledge and training in professional skill." Significantly enough, she mentions the research function first. Miss Hamilton indicates that the current trend in education for social work "is not

¹¹ Mary E. Richmond, Social Diagnosis (New York:

Russell Sage Foundation, 1917), p. 370.

12 New York: Columbia University Press.
13 New York: D. C. Heath and Co.

toward particularizing but toward the integration of the social sciences, of the far-flung aspects of a modern concept of social welfare, of an understanding of the interrelationships of the main humanitarian professions. . . . ?

Another indication of the research point of view in social work education is the activities of the American Association of Schools of Social Work, an organization of professional schools established in 1919. In the early years the Association was forced to concern itself with those activities characteristic of a new profession. As a result minimum standards were too often the maximum, field service could not be provided for all universities that needed it, and there was more interest in inspection than in consultation. Over the years there has been a pronounced change and the Association is now in a position to provide a medium for the discussion of problems of professional instruction in the schools. These discussions resulted in the appointment of committees to study the basic curriculum. Their reports which were published by the Association from 1942-44 indicate that teachers of social work view professional education from a broad, culturally oriented, social scientific point of view. With the general acceptance of such a point of view a more pronounced research emphasis is inevitable.

Teachers of social work, because of their close contact with the practice of social work, are in a position to participate in numerous community research activities. This participation widens their professional horizon, gives them experience in research techniques, and makes their professional knowledge useful to the community. The work of Mr. Philip Klein of the New York School of Social Work on the "New Pittsburgh Survey" is an excellent example of faculty participation in community research. Another example is the recent work of Miss Charlotte Towle of the School of Social Service Administration, University of Chicago. Her work for the Bureau of Public Assistance, Social Security Board, resulted in the publication of Common Human Needs. 14

Most of us in the schools do not have the opportunity, nor the professional capacity, to participate in research projects as significant as those directed by Mr. Klein or Miss Towle, but we do serve as consultants and participants in community studies. At the time this article is being written two of the five full-time staff members of the small school with which I am associated are doing research of this sort.

While case work is still the major emphasis in social work education our professional schools are being urged by a few organizations to produce qualified research workers. As our public assist-

¹⁴ Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945.

ance programs expand and stabilize they will need more research workers. With the continuing emphasis upon service rather than relief the private agencies are going to become more and more research minded. It is also probable that our agencies engaged in welfare planning will concentrate to a larger extent upon factual research as a basis for planning.⁷⁵

¹⁸ For a detailed list of public and private agencies engaged in research in social work see Anne Geddes' article on "Research and Statistics in Social Work", Social Work Yearbook, 1945, pp. 375-83.

All things considered the prospects for the future are favorable. As social work slowly edges its way from professional adolescence to full professional maturity there will be a greater need for scientific social research. We in the schools are in a strategic position to aid and abet this development through greater use of research materials in teaching, by adding to our professional knowledge through participation in research projects, and, most significantly, by maintaining an openminded experimental point of view.

A Case Work-Research Project

Sponsored by the Orleans Parish Department of Public Welfare and the Tulane
University School of Social Work

By Florence Sytz, Professor of Social Case Work, Tulane University School of Social Work

PUBLIC assistance grants are available to family groups in which the wage earner is ill. During the war period when there were plenty of jobs, large numbers of public assistance recipients obtained work. Sometimes with and often without the doctor's approval, clients went to work and notified the agency to stop their grants. There was, however, a residual group of wage earners able, in the opinion of a doctor or psychiatrist, to work who clung to their financial aid. In addition to these there were new or recurrent applications from families in which, although the wage earner was ill, there was a possibility of restoring him to employment.

A Brief Description of the Project

In May, 1944, I proposed to the Orleans Parish Department of Public Welfare a plan for studying a group of such clients in the residual group. Our common interest was that of learning more about case work methods useful in helping such clients become either partially or completely self-maintaining. We also thought that the project would provide one way of increasing the prestige value of the public agency in the eyes of the students; it would not be just a training unit where one began in in order to become eligible for placement in a medical or psychiatric agency. Furthermore, the project would be a means of integrating case work and research which all too often occupy separate zones of thinking and practicing. The project might poke some holes through any iron curtains separating the two.

After conferences with and between faculty members of the School of Social Work and members of the Department of Public Welfare, a plan of procedure was formulated. School of Social Work students in the two-day-a-week field work courses carried on in the Department of Public Welfare under the direct supervision of full-time members of the School faculty were to be assigned a certain number of cases falling within the agreed upon criteria. Each student would carry both project and non-project cases. Students and supervisors began work on the so-called project cases in July, 1944. The project ended in July, 1946. During this period a total of 65 families were assigned to the student units. Throughout the period the Tulane field work instructors and students were responsible for the case work services to this group of clients.

The framework within which the project was operated was set up in advance—within this framework we developed, discussed, evaluated and modified our case work methods. We were not studying closed or inactive cases, but currently active cases in which we were seeking immediate proximate answers to immediate complex situations.

In 1945 Margaret Edwards 1 used some of the project material for her thesis. This study can

¹ Margaret Edwards, "A Study of Selected Personal and Social Characteristics of Wage Earners, in Cases Assigned to the Tulane-Department of Public Welfare Project, February 1944 to February 1945". Unpublished thesis, School of Social Work, Tulane University, 1945. be looked upon as an interim report to the School and the agency, and I am using certain of her findings in my comments. We now have before us the job of preparing a report covering the findings in the 65 cases. Since the faculty members who participated in the study cannot be released from their teaching responsibilities to work on the report, we are setting for ourselves a two-year deadline. During the coming two years sections of the report will be prepared and discussed with members of the Orleans Parish Department of Public Welfare. This will make the material available for use before 1948.

The Importance of the Project

A project such as I have briefly described produces dividends for four groups of people-clients, students, field and classroom instructors, and agency supervisors and practitioners. The 65 cases will furnish the material needed to examine critically the case work methods used and will aid us in our search for the causes of our apparent failures and apparent successes. "For", as Edith Abbott stated in 1928, "if we have a profession three things are true: (1) there are basic principles; (2) these basic principles can be taught; and (3) they must come from two sources—a critical examination of the methods used to produce certain results and a searching equally for the causes of apparent failure and apparent success."

The pointing up of any group of current cases facilitates learning in that it counteracts that extreme type of individualism which insists that each client is so different that he has nothing in common with other clients presenting similar problems. We have, furthermore, been too inclined in case work practice to examine the methods used on a case-by-case basis hoping that the student or practitioner would be able to apply what he learned in one instance to other similar situations.

When we made any study of our practice we either employed someone to do this for us or we studied what we had done outside of any stated framework of operations. The after-the-event studies were apt to be disappointing in that the material needed for the evaluation of practice was not recorded. The one-person studies were filed more often than used.

Supervisors, whether employed by a School of Social Work or by an agency, may dig themselves into a professional rut from which they can see no escape except through a return to practice or through a change of scene—a new place, new faces, a new agency setting. It is with no thought of

underestimating the advantages accruing from these that I am suggesting a project as a possible third stimulus to professional growth and development. Self-stimulation, like self-direction, cannot be left just to chance; the individual must plan activities for himself which will increase his professional knowledge and skill and enable him to make his contribution to theory and practice.

In general, our supervisory methods are pointed at individual practitioner efficiency rather than at the maintenance of cooperative activity. We tend to leave pretty much to chance the fulfillment of the common and strong desire for continuous and intimate association in work with others. A project such as I have described, which is currently worked on for a given time period by students or agency staff members and supervisors, provides a way for people to work together. This not only increases their interest in making use of any of their findings, but changes collaboration from something to be wished for to something actively going on. For example, in the course of the project students and supervisors raised questions regarding diagnostic statements. ways of dealing with client fears and resistances, the content of letters of inquiry to clinics, et cetera. Faculty members and students prepared memoranda dealing with these and similar questions. They shared what they knew and could find out. Reading on certain topics became reading for a clearly understood and shared purpose rather than "assigned reading".

Preview of a Couple of Findings

Miss Edwards did not attempt in her study any evaluation of the case work methods used in the cases in which there was either apparent success or failure. In her study is to be found, however, certain background information essential to the understanding of the present behavior of some of the project families. Within the space allotted to me I can comment on only a couple of her findings.

The psychiatrists tell us that under sufficient stress any individual may show neurotic symptoms. Under sufficient stress any balance the individual may have attained between his dependent and independent strivings may be upset. The two experiences, in our time, that have provided this stress to large numbers of people are war and the economic depression. The former is easily recognizable as a source of stress, the latter has been both recognized and forgotten.

Many of the families in the project group of cases were first known to any social agency between 1929-1939. In this respect they were like many other families known to the Department of Public Welfare. They differed in the meaning that the experience had for them. Many of the men in the project families out of work for more than a year, and seeing hundreds of others like themselves, began to think less and less about the work they might never find and more and more about how to manage under the circumstances. The frequent changes in the federal and state programs added to rather than diminished their feeling of hopelessness. A sizeable number of the project families have been on and off the FERA rolls, on and off CWA, on and off WPA, waiting for public assistance grants and finally obtaining grants which have changed at frequent intervals.

Our failure to achieve a more stable and consistent administration of money payments to clients is damaging in that it encourages "dependence". The ups and downs in grants make for planless living. If you and I could never be sure of how much money we would have from one month to the next, if ever so often we had a sizeable percentage increase or decrease in our salary because our employer now had or did not have the money to meet the payroll as it was originally set up, we would soon wonder what the employer meant when he continued to talk about a wage or salary scale—we would, if we saw no escape open to us, cease to plan our expenditures, we would feel that there was little reason for us to exercise any initiative for the employer controlled our lives. Our relationship with our employer would be neither a happy nor a productive one for we would be "tempted both to subservience and to sour revolt and tending inexorably toward despair". No amount of case work skill can serve as a substitute for the damage stemming from inconsistent administration.

Although we may never achieve a completely stabilized administration of money payments to public assistance clients, we can lessen both the rapidity and irrational character of the changes for the grant recipients if we are thoroughly aware of the importance of doing so. To be aware of the importance of doing so means to stop thinking and talking of policies, procedures and administrative devices apart from their influence on the day in and day out lives of clients. It is to feel within the very marrow of one's bones a sense of personal and professional responsibility for the damage done to clients by the social agencies of which we are a part. It is to understand as thoroughly the importance of the present as did John Stuart Mill when he wrote that "it is only through the present that it is in our power to influence that which is to come."

The project families, like all others known to public welfare departments throughout the country, have experienced "budgeting and re-budgeting." From what I know of southern public welfare agencies I am inclined to think that the less money a department has with which to meet relief needs, the more astrologically complicated the budgetary process is. Astrologically complicated for clients and understandably so when we realize that in the south 22.9 per cent of the population 25 years of age and over have completed less than five years of schooling.

When the budgetary procedure is too complex for client understanding clients are inclined toward the belief that there is little rhyme or reason to the amount given to them. The case worker either likes or dislikes them—the psychological attributes of money become heightened rather than diminished. Problems increase for both the case worker and the client.

There are those who appear to be of the opinion that the more complex the budgetary process, the more forms the case worker has to complete in order to establish and to re-establish the grant, the harder it will be to get and to give money and that all this adds up to a bit of magic known as the "case work aspects of budgeting." Whereas assistance given on a budgetary basis should imply a procedure that can be readily understood by both case workers and clients, that makes possible the individualization of the needs of the recipients so as not to omit the human elements in each situation, and that can be consistently administered. It is, or should be, an essentially simple procedure. If it is impossible to make it so, the time has come to consider different methods for determining grants.

These few points selected from the background of stresses shared by the so-called project families and others are not new. In fact, they are sufficiently common and so well known to many public assistance agencies that they are taken for granted. Herein lies the danger of their perpetuation. For although many public assistance families apparently manage these and other stresses, inasmuch as the wage earner continues to desire to get well in order to work and support his family, we cannot accept a continuation of rapid changes in grants and complicated budgetary procedures bearing little relation to the grant the family finally obtains. For these are, as the project cases illustrate, in the list of potentially damaging factors. However, since they are factors within the control of the public assistance agency, we can look forward with some hope to the agency creating an environment more favorable to constructive activity on the part of both case workers and clients.

Use of Research in Program Planning and Administration

By Anne E. Geddes, Chairman, AASW Committee on Research and Statistics in Social Work

PROBABLY no aspect of social work administration has had more rapid development in the past 15 or 20 years than research. In social work, as in industry and all types of governmental enterprise, signal growth has occurred in the use of facts in planning and in evaluation of programs and their operations.

Many factors account for the gains that have been made in research in social work. Among these are the growth in the size and scope of social work programs; the influence of pioneer research projects in the depression and even earlier years; technical improvements in statistical and research method; increase in the number both of practitioners and of technically trained research workers in social work; and technological advances in mechanical devices for recording, tabulating, and summarizing data.

Social work is now conducted on a large scale. Each year social work programs touch the lives of many millions of persons. The annual bill for public assistance alone now exceeds \$1 billion. With the assumption by the federal government of a share of the responsibility for financing public assistance, child-welfare services, and vocational rehabilitation, organization for the administration of these programs has become nationwide.

Private as well as public social work programs are extensive. Many national social work organizations, for example, the American Red Cross, the United Service Organizations, and the Travelers Aid Society, have local agencies throughout the country. Though many local private agencies are independently administered, frequently they are affiliated with national agencies such as the Child Welfare League of America and the Family Service Association of America. In the communities, social agencies combine in councils of social agencies and community funds, and individual social workers belong to professional organizations. Modern social work agencies and social workers are convinced of the importance, for progressive development, of relating what they are doing to the larger whole.

Need for Research Increases with Scope of Agency Program

Obviously, the bigger the social work enterprise, the greater the need for facts in planning and evaluating operations. Without benefit of statistics, the social worker in a very small local agency undoubtedly can have a fairly complete grasp of the activity and accomplishments of the agency. But, as the magnitude of operations increases, direct observation becomes less and less trustworthy. Impressions-as opposed to knowledge of what goes on—supply a very inadequate basis for planning program, formulating policy, and making administrative decisions. may be, and usually are, far wide of the mark. Progressive and sound planning demands not only facts, but facts that are up-to-date. Times change, and relationships established in the past may not hold true in the present. All too often, administrators proceed on the basis of obsolete data on the false assumption that they are being guided by facts rather than impressions.

Legislators, boards, administrators, and social service staffs are relying more and more on facts because the value of concrete information has already been demonstrated to them. Each research project of real merit whets the appetite of consumers for more information. Social work owes much to pioneer research efforts, among which are the statistical studies of the Russell Sage Foundation and the Social Statistics Project of the Community Chests and Councils, Inc., formerly under the auspices of the U.S. Children's Bureau. Great impetus to social research was given by the depression when projects, on a scale hitherto unknown in this country, were undertaken under federal work programs. Among such projects are the studies of Consumer Incomes and Expenditures coordinated by the National Resources Committee, which gave rise to President Roosevelt's famous sentence, "One-third of the Nation is ill-fed, ill-housed, and ill-clothed." This and other comprehensive social surveys have had indisputable impact on national social policy.

Advances in Technics and Increases in Trained Personnel

Technical advances in research method have gone far to increase the practicability of research in social work. Progress is continually being made in the design of reporting systems and studies and in the development of procedures for obtaining reasonably reliable data. From the point of view of social work, one of the most significant gains is the progressive improvement in sampling methods. Sampling is taking root in social research as in all other fields. Without summarization, facts about individual cases do not contribute as much as they should to program planning. On the other hand, it is not necessary to study all the cases, in order to obtain reliable information concerning their characteristics. Sampling and other devices, moreover, are making possible more prompt returns from special studies. They are likewise opening up new horizons for research, since types of investigation are now possible that formerly were impracticable. The opinion poll, for example, has interesting possibilities for evaluating social work policies and practices.

The increase in the number of social workers with professional education and of research workers equipped to do research in social work has contributed to the growing importance of factfinding in this field. With the progressive development of professional education in the schools of social work, the level of competence of social workers in administrative and supervisory positions is rising. Concern for the facts is basic in the professional approach. Social workers in key positions are not only primary consumers of facts; they are helping to shape research programs and are contributing valuable consultation in the design of studies and the interpretation of results.

Fortunately, the universities and schools of social work are training increasing numbers of students for social research. The researcher in social work—as in any other field—must have a combination of technical skill and background if he is to recognize the problems requiring study, to make realistic plans for getting the facts, and to interpret the facts once they are gathered. Though the schools of social work are thoroughly aware of the importance of professional background for persons doing research in social work, few of them provide training adequate to produce the degree of technical skill required to conduct research along modern lines, and in accordance with the highest standards of technical competence for research.

Technological change, also, is playing its part in the development of facts in social work. Modern mechanical equipment of many types brings within manageable scope masses of data about individual cases and makes possible extensive analysis of the interrelationships of various factors.

Research and Social Legislation

Research is a dynamic force permeating every aspect of social work administration. Facts help to shape social legislation, to determine the scope and content of social work programs, to develop

procedures for the operation of programs, and to supply a basis for evaluation of both program content and operation effectiveness. Evaluation in turn leads to changes in legislation, replanning of programs, improvement in procedures, and thus to more effective service to people. Research is inherent, moreover, in social work practice. Every practitioner of social work seeks out and records the facts in individual cases, and, on the basis of the facts, supplies information, determines eligibility, establishes need, provides counseling, or undertakes therapy. Summarization and synthesis of the facts regarding groups of cases, affords a basis for broader planning and evaluation.

The effects of research on social legislation are unquestionably great. The report of the Committee on Economic Security, for example, significantly influenced the framing of the Social Security Act, enacted in 1936. Reports prepared by federal and state legislative commissions and study groups, and hearings before legislative committees often contain a wealth of research material focused on basic policy questions. Among significant legislative documents of the federal government, issued during the present session of Congress and containing much analytical material, are "Issues in Social Security," a report to the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives, prepared by the technical staff on social security of the committee, and "Medical Insurance: A Social Insurance Program for Personal Health Services," prepared by the Bureau of Research and Statistics of the Social Security Board and published by the Committee on Education and Labor of the United States Senate. In the State of New York, the Report of the Special Committee on Social Welfare and Relief of the Joint Committee on Interstate Cooperation influenced legislation reorganizing the State Department of Public Welfare.

Increasingly, also, state public welfare agencies are learning the importance of presenting an analysis and interpretation of the facts in submitting requests for funds to appropriation committees of the legislature. To be convinced, appropriation bodies must have compelling evidence of the need for funds. Requests for improvement or expansion of program obviously stand better chance of approval when supported by information effectively demonstrating not only the need for more funds, but the benefits to be derived by the agency's clientele from additional outlays. Private social agencies, likewise, are making increasingly imaginative and effective use of data in presenting requests for funds to their boards or to community chests, as well as in interpretation to the public which in part supports community social services.

Agency Staff Responsibility

Within the broad outlines established by legislation or by the board of an agency, responsibility for carrying out the program is, of course, delegated to the staff. In developing policies, standards and procedures; allocating staff; providing physical facilities; and deciding how funds are to be spent, the administrator must have facts. In a newly established program, planning must necessarily proceed on all fronts at once. In the going agency, however, planning generally becomes an integral part of the administrative and supervisory process.

Collection of Statistical Data for Comparative Purposes

To keep them periodically informed of the volume, character, and cost of their operations, most social agencies maintain statistical reporting systems. A great many social agencies also are reporting to a central agency from which, in turn, they are able to get comparative information on what similar agencies are doing. State public welfare agencies, for example, report summary data to the Bureau of Public Assistance and to the U.S. Children's Bureau of the Social Security Administration. Family welfare agencies beginning January first, 1947 will make reports to the Family Service Associaion of America, which will assume responsibility for the family casework statistics compiled from 1926 to 1946 by the Russell Sage Foundation. Local Travelers Aid societies report to the Travelers Aid Association. In many communities, social agencies in all branches of social work make reports to the local chest or council. Furthermore, local chests or councils in 43 metropolitan areas report on the operations of community agencies to the Community Chests and Councils, Inc. These and other central reporting systems for social statistics provide extensive basis for evaluation.

The influence of comparative data in improving standards has been enormous. Legislators, boards, and administrators, like the "Joneses," are sensitive to comparison. Innumerable instances could be cited when comparative statistics have lead officials who control the purse strings to increase allotments of funds. Many assistance agencies have been able to raise the levels of assistance because their payments were shown to be lower than those in other communities or states with similar social and economic conditions. Moreover, many agencies have been permitted to increase staff because they could demonstrate unusually high case loads per visitor. Comparative infor-

mation on salaries has in many places resulted in increased compensation of staff.

Value of Analysis

Social agencies like other organizations are rapidly learning how to get full value from the statistics they collect and compile. Though basic statistics have some value in their raw state, their full significance can emerge only on analysis. Analytical service in the larger administrative agencies is becoming increasingly common and effective. The purpose of developing statistical and other systematic information is, of course, to get illumination on fundamental problems. Statistics are not an end in themselves, but have value to the extent that they suggest answers to questions.

More and more, research analysts are learning how to draw on the pool of available data to shed light on administrative problems, large and small. Analysis that is focused often requires use not only of statistics and other information compiled in the agency, but of other pertinent data as well. The incomes of recipients of assistance, for example, can be judged only in relation to what it costs to live. Local appropriations to finance welfare services can be judged only in relation to appropriations for other community services, and to the fiscal ability of the locality. The number of persons served by a program can be evaluated only in relation to the number of persons in the general population in need of the service the agency has to offer. The variety of questions to be explored in a social agency is infinite. The resourceful research worker keeps his ear to the ground and not only presents information when it is timely, but anticipates future requirements and develops information in advance of the time when it will be urgently needed.

Social Research Must Keep Pace with Physical Research

The gains during the war years in the physical sciences present a challenge to social workers and other social scientists. The possibilities for dynamic change inherent in research are epitomized by the rocket and atomic bombs. If the fruits of physical research are to benefit—and not destroy society—social research must keep pace with, and not lag behind, physical research. We understand matter better than mankind. Since social work is concerned with the well-being of the individual and the community, it has unique opportunity through research to contribute to a better world.

Report of the National Employment Practices Inquiries Committee*

THE first meeting of the National Employment Practices Inquiries Committee was in March of 1946. There have been two additional meetings this year. Three specific complaints have been handled by local chapters or the national committee. The national and chapter inquiries have involved personnel problems covering:

Dismissal with insufficient notice of the executive of an agency following merger of that agency with another.

Inequitable application of personnel policies relative to leaves of absence.

Possible prejudice against employee because of union affiliation.

Difficulty experienced by a social worker in receiving routine evaluations and advancement within the public school administration employing him.

Questions Raised Regarding National EPI Procedures

The Committee related itself to and was governed by the "Chapter and National Procedures for Employment Practice Inquiries," as adopted by the 1941 Delegate Conference, hereinafter referred to in this report as the 1941 Procedures. Under these procedures, a chapter "should have the right either to accept the appeal for inquiry and review or refer it to the national committee.' Of the three complaints, two were studied and reviewed by local chapters. Of these two complaints, the one was the St. Louis situation reported in the June Compass. A further report on this situation will appear in a later issue. While in both situations handled by local chapters the 1941 procedures were followed through, action on the part of the St. Louis chapter raised two interesting questions: (1) Does the chapter act in behalf of the National Association or does it act only for itself? (2) What is the intent of the statement in the 1941 procedures, "Publication by the Association is made only after the National Committee on Employment Practices and the National Board approve"? The questions raised sharpen the need for revising the whole procedure in handling complaints. The National Committee ruled that, according to our present procedures, a local chapter does not act on behalf of national. The national does have some responsibility for

* Prepared by Esther Lazarus, chairman; Elizabeth Baker, Alice D. Caskie, Elizabeth Glover. reviewing and commenting upon action of a chapter relative to handling of grievances, just as it does for any activity of a chapter.

In both instances handled by local chapters, the National Committee concurred with the findings made by the chapters. Moreover, it should be noted that in the St. Louis instance, the National Committee did go on record commending the chapter for its courageous and responsible action.

Local Complaint Handled by National Committee

In the one complaint referred directly to the National Committee, the Chapter involved felt unable to accept responsibility for the inquiry into the situation and related itself to that section of the procedures which states "recognizing that there are times, particularly in small chapters, when members of local groups are too close to the situations to view them objectively, the committee may refer the request to the National Committee with a report on the data collected, and the reasons for the decision to refer it to the national."

The procedures further provide that "if an inquiry is agreed upon, the national committee selects a special committee to make the inquiry, the committee to consist of two or more members of the AASW; and the services of the national staff are to be utilized by the Committee as required." In this situation, the Committee asked a member of the national staff to make the necessary inquiry, but accepted responsibility for planning and directing the inquiry. The inquiry was related to AASW's "Statement on Employment Practices in Social Work" officially adopted in 1937, concerned with "staff participation in determining agency policies and procedures, and notice of resignation or dismissal." In the particular instance under consideration, which involved dismissal with insufficient notice of the executive of an agency following merger of that agency with another, the Committee was unable to establish whether the merged agency complied with these personnel practices, as the President of the Board of the merged agency was unwilling to provide the Committee's representative with information pertaining to the complaint. The Committee could only conclude that there was no basis for assurance that the agency gave adequate protection to the welfare of the agency's clients or its employees.

What Is the Authority of the Professional Association?

The findings in this situation did raise several questions: What could the AASW do under the circumstances? What is its real authority to take action in such situations? What is the effectiveness of a "black list" of agencies not having sound personnel practices? What was the responsibility of the national association of which the former and new agency was a member? What was the complainant's responsibility to advance, protect and safeguard sound personnel practices in the agency?

Committee's Comments

It does not seem necessary, at this time, to go into the details of any of the situations under consideration, but as a result of its discussions and deliberations, the Committee offers some general comments for consideration by the general membership of the Association.

Responsibility of the Professional Schools

The Committee believes that membership in the AASW is closely related to training for social work. As workers learn to become more responsible for themselves, this should be related to the need to become more responsible for development of the profession. It was, therefore, suggested that perhaps schools of social work would see some area of responsibility in this matter.

Responsibility of National Social Agencies

Further, since many agencies are members of national associations, there should be a closer working relationship between these national associations and the AASW, in the mutual concern to safeguard good personnel practices. An area requiring clarification is the responsibility assumed by national associations in making studies of agency situations or recommending persons to make such studies. It should be clearly understood whom such persons represent and what responsibility is accepted in making suggestions and recommendations. This involves many questions pertinent in the field of social work, but the Committee was particularly concerned with what was involved in personnel practices in such situations.

Another suggestion of the Committee is that, as mergers of social agencies are considered, national associations and individual members be particularly sensitive to the welfare of the client, community and workers involved in such mergers.

Responsibility of AASW Members

It is important for members of the AASW to be responsible for good personnel practices. It is equally important that they be aware of the possibility of making appeal to the Chapters for inquiries where these practices have been violated. The procedures for making such inquiries need to be examined very carefully and undoubtedly need revision. The meaning and intent of some of the procedures is vague and ambiguous, and does not seem to reflect the movement in the Association. The Committee suggests that members become more aware of their right to appeal. Experience in this area is needed both by chapters and the national committee.

Use of National Staff

The present Committee had considerable discussion around the question as to whether Committee members could be functionally related to making inquiries in case of appeals, or whether this was a responsibility of the Association that would have to be located with the Staff. Committee was aware of the fact that this was a controversial issue. While there was no question as to the rightness of having a staff member make the inquiry in the specific situation under consideration, this, too, is a matter that should be given thought and careful study. It would be necessary, too, to look into the whole question as to whether the Staff could take on such a responsibility as it might well develop into a major part of the staff activity. Furthermore, there needs to be developed a more convincing statement concerning the Association's responsibilbility and authority in this area. This may need a clarification of the legal base for such activity. While the Association has not been challenged, neither has it been very effective in some instances. The legal base would have to be clarified both inrelation to its own members, as well as to persons, such as board members, who are not members of the Association.

Need for Revision of EPI Procedures

As we have more experience in this area, there will emerge more clarity and there will, no doubt, be a need for a complete revision of the present procedure. The Committee strongly recommends that chapters give this considerable thought and study, and that the whole matter be brought up for consideration at the next Delegate Conference.

While only three specific situations have been known to the Committee this year, there seems to be considerable unofficial activity in this area in numerous chapters throughout the country. With the end of the war and possible dislocations brought on by veterans returning to former jobs, there may be less mobility among social workers and hence a sharpending of strained employment situations.

New Situations to Which the Procedures Are Applied

Social Workers are now involved in two new situations: First, the right of individuals to bargain collectively and to be represented by a union of their choice is now recognized and approved by the AASW. However, membership in a trade union is a relatively new experience for social workers, and they have yet to get hold of the professional core in this area. Second, social workers are now working in other than social agency settings. Considerable experience is needed here, too. Should the same standards prevail in a non-social work setting when a person operates in a social work capacity? What responsibility has the individual social worker for good personnel practices in such a setting?

AASW Members Should Know and Use AASW's Platform on Personnel Practices

Sound employment practices are essential to the professional quality of services offered by social workers to clients and community. Because of its belief that the professional quality of social work should be protected by good employment practices, the AASW has, throughout its history, accepted responsibility for defining the principles and standards which should govern the employment of personnel in social work. However, it has not clearly defined the individual member's responsi-

bility in relation to the standards developed by the AASW. The N.E.P.I. Committee feels that there is a mutual responsibility of employer and employee in this area; that, indeed, membership in the AASW assumes taking on a professional responsibility in this area. This raises the whole question of what is involved in membership in the AASW. The assumption is that as social workers become more and more responsible, membership in the AASW carries with it responsibility for developing the profession of social work. Further, each member must take particular responsibility for establishing and sustaining sound personnel practices, so that there will be an opportunity for responsible performance with the maximum protection of clients, community and employees. This responsibility should be clearly defined and understood as one applies for and accepts membership in the AASW. With this in mind, the N.E.P.I. Committee suggests that, as a social worker becomes a member of the AASW, a copy of the Association's "Personnel Practices in Social Work" be sent to him. If this is accepted as one of the responsibilities of membership, then, as complaints are made, the member's responsibility in the specific situation, as well as the responsibility of the agency, could be tested and questioned. The question, then, is how can the membership as a whole become positively related to the Association's Personnel Standards, so that these may be used most effectively?

AASSW Staff Change

The American Association of Schools of Social Work announces with regret the resignation of Miss Leona Massoth, Executive Secretary, effective October 1, 1946. Miss Massoth plans to complete Doctorate studies at the University of Chicago School of Social Service Administration.

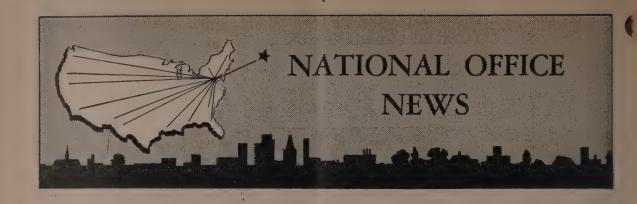
The appointment of Miss Sue Spencer to the post of Executive Secretary left vacant by Miss Massoth, starting October 1, 1946, is also announced at this time. Miss Spencer has been Assistant Executive Secretary of the American Association of Social Workers.

Available from National Office

Personnel Practices Statement adopted at the Buffalo Delegate Conference.

Reports of the Registration and Licensing Committee, including statements on the types of regulation in use by the following professions: medicine, nursing, teaching, the law, and the county.

The Civil Service Committee Report on an Examining Service for Social Workers. This report is based on the National Conference meeting on this subject.



Executive Committee Meeting, July 29 and 30

President-elect Paul Benjamin participated in the committee's discussion of program plans for 1946–47. The proposed assignments for the present national committees and several new committees were studied with a view to strengthening the program for the coming year. The suggestions of this Executive Committee, while not binding upon the incoming Board, should prove valuable.

The Executive Committee also gave careful consideration to the report of the National Employment Practices Inquiries Committee (published elsewhere in this issue) and to the plans for the establishment of a National Council on Education for Social Work. This Council is to be initiated under AASW auspices and the

Executive Committee appointed the following persons as its representatives:

Mrs. Irene Farnham Conrad Harriett M. Bartlett A. A. Heckman Mrs. Catherine M. Manning Joseph P. Anderson

The Executive Committee heard the report, also, of the July 26 and 27th meeting of a Joint AASW-AASSW Committee established to facilitate cooperative effort related to social work education. Representing the AASW were Mrs. Conrad, Miss Bartlett and Mr. Heckman; representing AASSW were Miss King, James Brown, IV and W. W. Newstetter. Mr. Newstetter chaired the meeting.

Plan for National Council on Education for Social Work

A development of major importance to the field of social work is the establishment of a National Council on Education for Social Work which held its initial meeting under the auspices of AASW on August 26 and 27 in New York City. The Council provides the machinery for cooperative effort in strengthening and expanding our educational programs and facilities.

The plan for the Council was developed by an Interim Committee of the American Association of Schools of Social Work and the National Association of Schools of Social Administration and has been approved by both associations. Members of the Interim Committee were:

Arlien Johnson, AASSW, chairman; Mary Sydney Branch, AASSW, secretary; Mildred Arnold, Children's Bureau; Ernest Harper, NA SSA; Jane Hoey, Bureau of Public Assistance; Howard Russell, APWA; Sue Spencer, AASW.

The Plan of Organization

- The Interim Committee recommends the establishment of a Council on Education for Social Work.
- 2. Although this Council should have responsibility for defining its own membership, the Interim Committee recommends, as an initial nucleus for the Council, a group of twenty-five (25) members, composed of:
 - Nine (9) representatives from the professional organizations:
 - Five (5) from the American Association of Social Workers.
 - One (1) from the American Association of Medical Social Workers.
 - One (1) from the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers.

- One (1) from the National Association of School Social Workers.
- One (1) from the American Association of Group Workers.
- Eleven (11) representatives from educational organizations:
 - Five (5) from the American Association of Schools of Social Work—one (1) for each ten (10) member schools or major fraction thereof, as indicated by the published membership list of January, 1946.
 - Three (3) from the National Association of Schools of Social Administration—one (1) for each ten (10) member schools or major fraction thereof, as indicated by the published membership list of January, 1946.
 - One (1) named by the Joint Committee on Accrediting of the four (4) university and college associations (The Association of Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, the National Association of State Universities, the Association of Urban Universities, and the Association of American Universities).
 - One (1) named by the Association of American Universities.
 - One (1) named by the Association of American Colleges.
- Five (5) representatives from the public social services named by the American Public Welfare Association because of their firsthand knowledge of the social work aspects of some of the emerging fields, such as insurance, housing, health, and the employment services.
- 3. The Interim Committee recommends the following functions for the Council:
 - (1) The establishment of a temporary Commission on Education for Social Work, broadly representative of the field of education, practice, and related interests, to make a long-range study of the content and methods of existing undergraduate and graduate education for social work and the extent to which such education prepares and might prepare for the present and emerging needs of the field.
 - (2) The definition of the content of education for social work so that agreement can be reached among educational organizations and so that one accrediting program for social work can be developed with the machinery for carrying it forward.

- (3) The immediate establishment of machinery for continuous collection of data on personnel needs in social work and the quantity and distribution of educational facilities. Such data would provide the basis for action in stimulating the expansion of our educational facilities.
- (4) The development of methods of closer cooperation in the activities now carried on by the two educational organizations and other interested groups. The Council would provide the machinery for discussion of common educational problems, such as the study of the standardizing of examinations for transfer of credit between accredited and non-accredited institutions, the development of teaching personnel for schools of social work, the provision of scholarships and fellowships for social work faculty and students, and the increase of financial resources for social work education.
- 4. The Interim Committee recommends that, after approval of the plan by AASSW and NASSA, AASW be asked to launch the Council, which would later determine its own auspices and sponsorship.

Staff Changes

On September 30, 1946 Sue Spencer will leave the staff of AASW to become Executive Secretary of the American Association of School of Social Work. Formal recognition of Miss Spencer's resignation was given by the Executive Committee on July 30 in the following resolution:

The Executive Committee notes with real regret Miss Spencer's decision to resign as Assistant Executive Secretary, effective September 30, 1946. During her period of employment she has made an outstanding contribution to the range and vitality of the program of the Association.

On behalf of the Association, the Executive Committee herewith expresses its deep appreciation for the invaluable service Miss Spencer has given and extends to her best wishes for success in her new position as Executive Secretary of the American Association of Schools of Social Work.

Mrs. Amy McDonall Wells, Executive Assistant in the national office, is taking a leave of absence beginning September 1, 1946. She plans to return on February 1, 1947.

1946 Elections

The election of Officers for the year beginning October 1, 1946, and of members of the National Board and Nominating Committee was ratified at the corporation meeting on July 30. The results are listed below.

OFFICERS

Term Expires June 30, 1947

	Paul L. Benjamin Alton A. Linford	Philadelphia Chicago
2nd Vice-Pres.	Arthur H. Kruse	Akron
	Louise M. Clevenger Jean Kallenberg	St. Paul New York City
Treasurer	Earl N. Parker	New York City

National Board Members at Large

Term Expires June 30, 1949

Gladys Dobson, Portland, Ore. Lora Lee Pederson, Nashville

Board Members from Nominative Districts

Term Expires June 30, 1949

District 3—Elwood W. Camp, Lincoln, Nebraska. District 6—Alice L. Taylor, Washington, D. C. District 9—Mrs. Catherine M. Manning, Rochester, N. Y.

Nominating Committee Members

Term Expires June 30, 1949

District 3—Florence W. Hutsinpillar, Denver District 5—Helen W. Hanchette, Cleveland District 9—Mary A. Mason, Boston

Term Expires June 30, 1948

District 2-Paul T. Beisser, St. Louis

Term Expires June 30, 1947

District 7-Leah Feder, Pittsburgh

Members of the National Board previously elected and continuing in office are

Board Members at Large

	Expires
John Charnow, Washington, D. C	 1947
Arlien Johnson, Los Angeles	 1947
·Mrs. Eleanor Cranefield, Detroit	 1948
Herbert D. Williams, Warwick, N. Y	 1948

Board Members from Nominative Districts

Term Expir	
District 1—Nellie L. Woodward, San Francisco 19-	47
District 5-Mrs. Lucia Bing, Cleveland 194	47
District 7—Helen Hubbell, Harrisburg 194	47
District 2—Charlotte C. Donnell, Oklahoma City 194	48
District 4-Mrs. Helen Pearson Roell, Indianapolis 194	48
District 8-George M. Hallwachs, New York City 19	48

Nominating Committee Members

				Term	Ex	pires
District	4-Marietta	Stevenson.	Urbana.	III		1947
District	6—William	L. Painter.	Richmon	đ		1947
District	1-John F.	Hall. Seattl	e			1948
District	8-Lyman F	ord, Westch	iester Co.	. N. Y		1948

Supplement to the January 1947 Issue of THE COMPASS

Published by

The American Association of Social Workers 130 East 22nd Street, New York 10, N. Y.

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